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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the investigation involving 200 adolescents was to develop a descriptive profile of the adjudicated adolescent. The investigator sought to determine if predictive factors were discernable from an ex post factor analysis of data. Six instruments were utilized in obtaining the data: the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC); WISC-Revised; Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale; Wide Range Achievement Test; Bender Visual Motor Gestalt Test; and Rorschach Test. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data. Demographic data were analyzed first. Among significant relationships found were those between Ss from broken homes and Ss who had experienced some type of drug intake immediately preceding the offense(s) for which the Ss were apprehended and adjudicated. When scholastic data were analyzed, significant relationships were found between Ss with learning problems and Ss who experienced some type of drug intake; and intelligence quotient of Ss and races of Ss, Ss from broken homes, Ss who experienced some type of drug intake, and Ss with learning problems. Among conclusions were that home status of delinquent Ss is reflective of the increasing number of delinquents who come from broken homes and delinquents from the current study are younger and brighter than the delinquents of previous years. (Author/SBH)

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THE ADJUDICATED ADOLESCENT IN CONTEMPORARY AMERICAN SOCIETY

A Research Report

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION	1
Purpose of the Study	1
Questions Addressed	1
Significance of the Study	2
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	2
Juvenile Delinquency	2
Factors Influencing Incidence	3
Delinquent Topologies	4
Personality Characteristics	5
Antisocial Personality	6
Deviance	6
Labeling	7
Child Abuse	7
Early Signs of Delinquency	7
Emerging Patterns	8
Delinquency Correlates	8
DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE	10
Families	10
Parents	11
Broken Homes	11
Siblings	12
Age Levels	12
Race	12
Male/Female Delinquency	13
Peer Groups	13
Drop-Outs	14
Drugs and Alcohol	14
DELINQUENT BEHAVIOR PROFILE	14
Crime	14
Violence	16
Recidivism	17
SCHOLASTIC PROFILE	18
Schools	18
Intelligence Quotients	20
Special Learning Problems	20

ADJUDICATION	21
Adjudicatory Statuses	22
Successful Change Agents	22
Diagnostic Tools	23
PREVENTION/TREATMENT	24
METHODOLOGY	27
Subjects for the Study	27
Obtaining the Data	29
Statistical Design	29
ANALYSIS OF DATA	30
DESCRIPTIVE PROFILE	30
Home Status	30
Family Data	32
Sex	32
Chronological Age	32
School Status	32
Incarcerated Family Members	32
Drug Intake	39
School Suspension	39
Offenses Committed	39
Previous Adjudication	39
Scholastic Achievement	43
Special Learning Problems	43
Discrepancies Between Mean Reading and Mean Arithmetic Scores	43
Discrepancies Between the Mean Expected Grade Attainment and Mean Actual Grade Attainment	47
STATISTICAL COMPUTATION	47
SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION	49
Summary	49
Discussion	51
Composite Sociopathic Profile	53
REFERENCES	54

Tables

<u>Table</u>	<u>Page</u>
1 Subjects Utilized in the Present Study Reported by Age Range, Race, and Sex	28
2 Status of Home Conditions at the Time of Adjudication for all Subjects Reported by Age Range, Race, and Sex	31
3 Family Data Reported for All Subjects by Age Range, Race, and Sex	33
4 Sex of All Subjects Reported by Race and Age Range	34
5 Mean Chronological Ages for Subjects Reported as Being From Stable Homes	35
6 Mean Chronological Ages for Subjects Reported as Being From Broken Homes	36
7 School Status of All Subjects Reported by Age Range, Sex, and Race	37
8 Subjects Immediate Family Members Who Were Incarcerated at the Time of the Subjects' Adjudication Reported by Age Range, Race, and Sex	38
9 Subjects Who Indicated They Had a Suspension From Normal School Activities Reported by Age Range, Race, and Sex	40
10 Offenses Committed by Subjects in This Investigation Reported by Age Range, Race, Sex, and Nature of Offense	41
11 Previous Offenses Committed by Subjects in This Investigation Reported by Age Range, Race, Sex, and Nature of Offense	42
12 Scholastic Achievement Including Reading, Arithmetic, and Intelligence Quoteint (IQ) Scores for All Subjects Reported by Race, Sex, and Age Range	44
13 Special Learning Problems of All Subjects Reported by Race, Sex, and Age Range	45

<u>Table</u>		<u>Page</u>
14	Discrepancy Between the Mean Reading and Mean Arithmetic Scores and the Grade Expectancy Level for All Subjects Reported by Race, Sex, and Age Range	46
15	Discrepancy Between the Mean Expected Grade Attainment and the Mean Actual Grade Attainment Reported by Race, Sex and Age Range	48

INTRODUCTION

Juvenile delinquency is a serious problem in contemporary America and has been for centuries. Over the years, the problem of delinquency has grown in epidemic proportions. In 1947, 16.1% of all arrests made in the United States involved males and females under the age of 21 (Neumeyer, 1950). By 1976, young people, aged 22 and younger accounted for almost 60% of all criminal arrests (Mathias, 1977). Pooley (1977) reports that crime and delinquency now cost the American taxpayer \$88 billion per year. Although statistics and recommendations regarding the problem of delinquency are available in the literature (Hirschi & Selvin, 1967; Mangel, 1974; Neumeyer, 1950), much more attention needs to be given to the enormous problem of profiling adolescent criminal typologies in order to conserve dollars, and more importantly, human potential.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this investigation was to develop a descriptive profile of the adjudicated adolescent based on the identification of (a) common delinquent characteristics (e.g., demographic data, delinquent behavior data, and scholastic achievement data), (b) anti-authority behavioral patterns, and (c) the illustration of the scholastic underachievement data of adjudicated adolescents. This study is based on 200 randomly selected case studies of adjudicated adolescents who were referred to a licensed psychologist, acting as a consultant to a juvenile bureau in an urban center in the Southwestern United States.

The investigation has addressed two primary questions.

1. For which offenses are delinquents, at different ages, most frequently adjudicated?
2. Is there a relationship among demographic data, delinquent behavior data, and scholastic achievement data at the time of adjudication?

Significance of the Study

Central to this study was the development of an adjudicated adolescent profile such that it could serve as a referral point for change agents in their interactions with the populations of adjudicated adolescents. The successful construction of an adjudicated adolescent profile could serve as a basis for future research in the area of model construction for change agents.

To successfully establish a model of the contemporary, adjudicated adolescent, it is necessary to analyze the problem of juvenile delinquency. The profile should be such that it will (a) be helpful in understanding the problem and (b) have predictive power (Pollack, 1968).

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The literature in this study focuses on the nature of juvenile delinquency based on (a) demographic, (b) behavioral, and (c) scholastic data. Each of the three areas contribute data to the overall problem of juvenile delinquency. The review of literature is presented to establish a research base for this study.

Juvenile Delinquency

The term juvenile delinquency came into use in the early 1800's and remains in use today (Achenback, 1975). The original designation of the term was not criminal in nature. Instead, it was for poor and homeless children, whether or not they had committed crimes (Achenback, 1975). In the recent past, those youth whose conduct brought them to the attention of the courts have been termed as delinquent.

Contemporary use of the term juvenile delinquency is without specific meaning. As it is commonly used, it would describe a range of generally disapproved behaviors engaged in by some young people (Rachin, 1974). It describes offenses ranging from truancy to murder. Generally, the offender is less than eighteen years of age.

The term "juvenile delinquency" is ambiguous, at best, Quay (1963), in commenting on the ambiguity of the term and its meaning observed that the legal definition has been the most popular "...a child who has appeared before a juvenile judge for an official hearing and disposition" (p. 318). Juvenile laws, however, vary from place to place. In many locales, the term "juvenile delinquency" has been refined to include only such "conduct which, if committed by an adult, would be a violation of the criminal law" (Orlando & Black, 1975, p. 357). Violation of those laws pertaining only to children would now be included. Hirschi and Selvin (1967) however, refer to delinquency in terms of "repeated acts" and "persistent misbehavior tendencies" (p. 61). Emery and Marholin (1977) feel that "delinquent behavior is a response or series of responses which is aversive to society as a whole" (p. 867).

Factors Influencing Incidence

The concept of delinquency is more general than its legal definition. The study of delinquency is usually approached in one or more of the following ways: (a) the individual; (b) the environment; and/or (c) physical and/or psychological deficits (Chicago Police Department, 1968). Certain delinquents and their delinquencies are probably products of social factors and intrapsychic factors (Quay, 1964).

Delinquency is the adolescent's response to humiliation, shame, and the loss of self-esteem (Friedenberg, 1959). Scarpitti (1965) indicates that delinquency is simply a response to the social milieu where deviance is the norm. Glasser's (1960) response to the problem of juvenile delinquency centers around incompletely formed egos. His belief is that the person with a character disorder has gaps in the ego formation, thus causing delinquents to act as though law and order were not in existence. Paradoxically, these individuals know they are doing wrong even while breaking the law. Individuals such as these are powerless to stop the prohibited activity because a complete functional ego is not involved.

There are several theories regarding delinquency and subsequent adult criminality. One theory (Matza & Sykes, 1961; Yochelson & Samenow, 1977) views the

delinquent's perception for material success through a prototype of a leisured elite. The thrill of adventure is emphasized while the discipline of employment is rejected. Although the concept of a leisured elite is, practically speaking, a fantasy, the delinquent views it as reality. A third theory (Cohen, 1955), suggests that middle class delinquency is a response to anxiety regarding sex role identification which frustrates and inhibits attainment of adult self sufficiency. Still a fourth theory is psychogenic in nature and holds that persons committing crimes are acting out emotional problems (Kvaraceus & Miller, 1959). Unfortunately, these theories do not account for those persons who "act out" their emotional problems in noncriminal ways (Gibbons, 1965). Although different theories have been espoused, most contemporary researchers agree on three theoretical points: (a) delinquency is a multicausal phenomenon; (b) the term has been a waste basket concept; and (c) current efforts should be aimed at the establishment of specific, "homogeneous subgroups within the heterogeneous syndrome" (Barcai & Rabkin, 1974), p. 388).

Delinquent Typologies

Beginning with the original work of Hewitt & Jenkins (1946) many research studies have consistently demonstrated that deviant behaviors can be adequately divided into four categories. Although they have been known by different names, they can be referred to as (a) conduct disorder, (b) personality disorder, (c) inadequacy-immaturity, and (d) socialized delinquency (Quay, 1978), p. 9). Etiological theory can be divided into two categories: (a) emphasis on the importance of attitudes and emotions of individual delinquents, and (b) delinquency resulting from the social environment (Clarizio & McCoy, 1976). An etiologically based delinquency classification system was developed by Waldrop (1967). In it, five model groupings were identified: (a) organic; (b) grossly deprived delinquent; (c) emotionally disturbed delinquent; (d) family problem delinquent; and (e) situational delinquency.

Hewitt and Jenkins (1946), in their original study, constructed three behavior syndromes and four situational delinquent patterns. The three behavior syndromes were (a) the unsocialized aggressive behavior syndrome which is characterized by assaultive tendencies, anti-authority feelings, cruelty, and inadequate guilt feelings; (b)

the socialized delinquent syndrome which is characterized by gang activities, chronic school truancy, and runaway behavior; and (c) the overinhibited behavior syndrome characterized by seclusiveness, apathy, and submissiveness. The four situational patterns were: (a) parental rejection; (b) parental negligence and exposure to delinquent behavior; (c) family repression; and (d) physical deficiency.

More recently, Reiss (1952) and Quay (1964, 1966) have identified three personality types among delinquents. The Reiss personality types were (a) weak ego controls; (b) defective superego controls, and (c) integrated control. The Quay personality types were (a) the psychopathic delinquent; (b) the subcultural delinquent; and (c) the neurotic delinquent (Clarizio & McCoy, 1976). In his review of delinquent typologies, Kinch (1962), also identified three delinquent classes: (a) antisocial; (b) prosocial; and (c) asocial. Finally, Peterson, Quay, and Tiffany (1961) generated a set of personality constructs related to delinquent behavior. These constructs include (a) neuroticism or emotional disturbance, and was associated with tension, anxiety, guilt or psychopathy and reflected distrust and impulsiveness; (b) aggressive antisocial attitude; and (c) reflection of a delinquent background and participation in a delinquent subculture.

Glueck and Glueck (1950), assessed factors considered as potentially important to delinquency. Some of the more significant factors were (a) fewer delinquents were living with their natural parents; (b) delinquents were more frequently the victims of indifference or hostility; (c) inconsistent discipline; (d) delinquents showed a higher prevalence of educational retardation; and (e) 56% of the delinquents were gang members as opposed to less than 1% of the controls.

Personality Characteristics

There has been a marked change in the delinquent population over the last ten years. The delinquent of today is younger, brighter, and can be culturally categorized by such traits as meanness and violence (Mauser, 1974). Their grades are below average. Many have fallen one or more grades behind their classmates or have completely dropped out of school. They are concentrated in large, urban cities, with delinquency rates highest among those from broken homes and/or where there are large numbers of siblings (Winslow, 1968).

The sociopathic personality is often a trait of the juvenile delinquent. Violation of laws becomes a matter of course, the rights of others become secondary to personal gratification, and established order is flaunted. The sociopathic delinquent "may be asocial or antisocial and operates this way, again, by pattern" (Tomaino, 1969, p. 19).

Antisocial Personality

In the view of many psychiatrists, adolescent delinquent behavior is an

"action screen, behind which hides, not the arrogant, defiant, seemingly omnipotent rebel, but a cowering, angry, and dependent child who is afraid of life. The greater the fear, the more flamboyant the boys strut, the more impenetrable the girl's mask" (Richette, 1969, p. 208).

Many times, the acting out behavior is a result of the individual not having previously learned a more appropriate manner of handling anxieties and frustrations. Social responsibility is a rarity and social relationships exist only to gratify personal needs (Hamner, 1969).

A characteristic of the adolescent sociopath is an inability or difficulty in establishing and maintaining interpersonal relationships. Part of that problem revolves around the distrust many youths feel for authority figures such as teachers and police. Many delinquents expect adults functioning in these roles to interact with them as would parents or friends. When this interaction is not forthcoming, the delinquent's perception of the individual is hostile and results in rejection (Hardy & Cull, 1974). The youth that has no assurance that his physical or emotional needs will be cared for "naturally feels that the world is unfriendly" (Ross, 1962, p. 61).

Deviance

Deviant behavior is behavior labeled as such by those people viewing the behavior as deviant (Becker, 1963). Like other behaviors, deviance is learned and reinforced through social interaction (Becker, 1969). It is enhanced and encouraged by the social environment, yet delinquents do not receive treatment until a very late stage in their delinquency. Through expression of acting-out behaviors in adolescent delinquents, it should be

recognized that certain social and emotional needs have not been consistently met ("Problems of Juvenile Delinquency," 1974). Further, acting out behavior would be less likely to occur in nonalienated youths. It is likely that deviance is not and will not be understood without reference to the environment from which the deviance is exhibited.

Labeling

Predicting delinquency in children through the labeling process can be unwise, particularly when the self-fulfilling prophecy is recognized as a real entity (Wittman, 1974). There appears to be a strong negative correlation between labeling children as delinquent and their willingness to respond positively (Richette, 1969). Wheeler and Cottrell (1969) have determined that labeling particular acts as "criminal" is crucial to the progress of a criminal career. From the moment a person is labeled, that person is watched. Every mistake made by that individual will further convince the labelers of the delinquent's guilt (Winslow, 1968).

After being labeled, delinquents are quickly isolated from nondelinquents and in the process lose those items society equates with healthy relationships, i.e., learning, sharing, and social acceptance (Tomaino, 1969). Ullmann and Krasner (1975), report, however, that an offender must first be caught before being officially labeled as delinquent. Reinforcement of a negative self-concept through social rejection experienced as a result of the delinquent label, can convince the individual that it is not possible to follow societal norms (Lemert, 1967).

Child Abuse

Following such parental rejections as divorce and physical or emotional abuse, it is likely that a child will become rebellious, aggressive, and insecure (Hirschi, 1969). Fontana (1973) states that a major factor in future criminality is the abuse and neglect endured by children presently. "In many states penalties for abusing animals are more severe than those for abusing children" (National Committee for Prevention of Child Abuse, 1976).

Early Signs of Delinquency

Early signs of delinquency will likely be observed in school and the home. Loss of interest in school subjects often precedes conflicts with authority figures in the home and school. This is followed by some acting-out behavior causing society to respond (Hardy & Cull, 1974).

3. There is a negative relationship between delinquency and church attendance.
4. Club membership has not been demonstrated to be a factor in delinquency.
5. Good workers are less likely than poor workers to be delinquent.
6. Social class and delinquency are negatively related.
7. Globally, studies suggest a relationship between poverty and delinquency.
8. There is no relationship between delinquency and employment of the mother outside the home.
9. Health and delinquency are not related.
10. The worse the child's performance in school, the more likely he is to become delinquent.
11. There is a high relationship between truancy and delinquency.
12. There is a slightly greater likelihood of children from broken homes becoming delinquent than children from intact homes.

Some epidemiological correlates that can increase the likelihood of a person being labeled as delinquent include

"...being male, from an unstable home of lower socioeconomic status, residing in an area marked by low owner occupancy and overcrowding, and being 16 to 17 years of age are the features that seem most predictive of a person's attaining delinquent status" (Ullmann and Krasner, 1975, p. 557).

A likely candidate for delinquency is the individual who views himself as competent, even in failure. It is he who is more likely to blame the system for personal failure, and is consequently more likely to become delinquent (Hirschi, 1969).

Demographic Profile

Families

Family disorders remain a catalyst for delinquency today, much the same as times past ("Problems of Juvenile Delinquency," 1974). The incidence of juvenile delinquency increases dramatically with problems in the immediate family.

A child's first exposure to the socialization process is usually within the family constellation. It is here that a child learns to accept rules and curb desires, to manage emotions, adjust to authority figures, and to respond in socially appropriate and acceptable ways regarding the satisfaction of personal needs (Winslow, 1968).

A position considered to be virtually axiomatic in the social and behavioral sciences is the importance of family factors on the behavior of children (Friedman, Mann, and Friedman, 1975). Culbertson and Schrink (1974), believe the family to be the most important aspect of the delinquent environment. The breakdown of the family is most important when analyzing delinquency. "We look for quick solutions, but family stability is the long-term answer" ("The Youth Crime Plague," 1977, p. 25).

As family problems increase, the chance for juvenile delinquency within the family increases (Mathias, 1977). Teicher (1976), observed that as human beings "we're aggressive, violent, destructive, self-centered--we're uncivilized. The family should have a socializing effect. Standards, ethics, honesty, that's the key" (P. 143).

Some family characteristics which may enhance the possibility of delinquency are one parent families, families with high numbers of siblings, and chronic bickering between parents. Also, parental inconsistencies and negative father-son relationships have a bearing on potential delinquency. Collectively, these things work to unseat the authority and respect commanded by most parents (Winslow, 1968). Toby (1957) found that areas having high rates of family disorganization have correspondingly high rates of delinquency in girls and pre-adolescent boys. The disorganized family is not able to give the firm supervision that the organized family provides. Further, disturbances in the father-son relationship have been demonstrated to be more closely associated with delinquency than material deprivation (Andry, 1960).

Parents

The roots of disturbance usually lie in the early experiences of a person and include parental inconsistencies. Several investigators (Becker, 1964; Glueck and Glueck, 1964; James, 1970) have pointed out the unwitting contribution made by parents to antisocial behavior through inconsistent parenting.

A child's delinquency is basically determined through shortcomings of the parents such as health care and childrearing practices. Those children likely to become delinquent have parents who are demonstrably inconsistent, erratic, and lax ("Problems of Juvenile Delinquency," 1974). Conversely, "consistent discipline leads to identification" and a subsequent lack of criminal behavior (McCord, McCord, and Zola, 1959, p. 194).

De Lissovoy (1973), found that young parents are basically an "intolerable group--impatient, insensitive, irritable, and prone to use physical punishment with their children" (p. 22). Many parents, when called on to defend their neglect become defiant and verbally attack their accusers (Loble and Wylie, 1967). "It appears that one of the best predictors of adult psychopathy is having a father who was himself psychopathic, alcoholic, or antisocial (Hare, 1970, p. 109).

Too often, parents do not safely care for their children. Intelligence is often the problem but many times the parents are too young to know better. Alcoholism is often a problem of parents, and consequently their children (James, 1970). Arnold (1976), suggests that families are primary in delinquent causation. He states that parents do not teach responsibility and discipline, children are physically abused far too frequently, and finally, many children are viewed as failures within the family constellation.

Broken Homes

Another aspect of parental influence on delinquency development comes from the impact of a broken home on the youth. High proportions of delinquents come from some type of broken home (Wattenburg and Saunders, 1954). More specifically, a study done in Virginia (Messinger, 1977), indicated only 22.1% of the delinquent population studied had been living at home with both natural parents prior to commitment. Hardy and Cull (1974), say that "figures now show that approximately 50% of delinquents come from broken homes" (p. 42). Nye (1957), however, reports that children from unhappy, unbroken homes

reported a higher incidence of delinquent behavior and greater parent-child adjustment problems than did children of divorced broken homes.

Siblings

There is support for the argument that boys coming from families with large numbers of brothers run a higher risk of delinquency than other boys (Clarke and Softley, 1975). Further, Glueck and Glueck (1950), determined a relationship between general family size and delinquency.

Age Levels

Delinquency often starts early in life. Approximately 60% of delinquents have committed their first offense by the age of 10 (Glueck and Glueck, 1950). However, FBI statistics indicate that for males, 17 year olds are arrested more frequently, followed by 18 year olds, and 16 year olds (Short, 1966).

Wolfgang, Figlio and Sellin (1972) found that most delinquencies start at age 16. Mukherjee (1971), found that 39% started delinquent activity at age 16 or later.

Race

In the United States especially, race has been found to be an important variable in its relationship to crime and delinquency (Mukherjee, 1971). Black-white differences in delinquent activity can at least begin to be explained through the differences in academic achievement (Hirschi, 1969). Pettigrew (1964), however, found that regardless of race, personality and social functioning will be effected through social and economic disadvantages.

In the Ahlstrom and Havighurst (1971), study, it was found that maladaptive late adolescent adjustments among blacks was much higher than whites. Further, blacks and males have been found to be more criminally aggressive than whites or females based on their high rates of crimes against persons (Wolfgang, 1969). Even so,

"the factor of race is almost as important as that of sex in determining whether a person is likely to be arrested and imprisoned for an offense. Many more whites than negroes are arrested every year but more negroes have

a significantly higher rate of arrest in all categories except such offenses as public order and morals" (President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, 1967).

Male/Female Delinquency

In 1965, one fifth of the males and more than one half of the females referred to juvenile court were referred for offenses that would be noncriminal for adults. The primary referrals for delinquent males included larceny, burglary, and motor vehicle theft; females were referred for runaway behavior, ungovernable behavior, larceny and sex offenses (President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, 1967).

"More girls are getting involved in violent crime. From 1970 to 1975, the arrest rate of girls under 18 for serious offenses climbed 40% v. 24% for boys. In 1975, 11% of all juveniles arrested for violent crimes were female" (The Youth Crime Plague, 1977, p. 19).

Even so, the offenses most common to the adjudicated female adolescent are sex violations (Cohen, Granger, Provence, and Solnit, 1975), incorrigibility, and running away (Tappan, 1949), with females admitting to only 1% of serious offenses (Elliott and Voss, 1974).

Peer Groups

Group support is the essence of delinquency. They thrive together. Security and recognition are found on the street. Their attitudes, ambitions and dress are those of the group (Winslow, 1968). The alienation experienced by delinquents from society increases the power and magnitude of the delinquent peer group as an enforcer (Tupker and Pointer, 1975). Young people value the opinions of their peers, and without a strong parent-child relationship, the peer groups will win out in conflict with the family (James, 1970). In short, the peer group is the number one influence for most adolescents (Ahlstrom and Havighurst, 1971).

Dropouts

Elliott (1966) declared there are twice as many dropouts involved in delinquent activity as compared to high school graduates. Hathaway and Monachesi (1963) were more specific. Thirty-nine percent of the males and 31% of the females who drop out are delinquent, compared with base rates of 24% and 10.4%, respectively.

Some studies have carefully noted that a causal relationship cannot be established merely through the existence of an association between dropout and delinquency (Schreiber, 1963; Jeffrey and Jeffrey, 1970). Elliott and Voss (1974), however, have established some independent predictors of delinquency and dropout which include (a) school failure; (b) alienation; and (c) association with dropouts. Schreiber (1964) further delineated four major factors involved in the dropout problem: (a) functional illiteracy; (b) repeating a year of school; (c) low intelligence; and (d) poor self-concept.

Drugs and Alcohol

Surveys have shown that a substantial number of teenagers drink alcoholic beverages. Estimates of 71% to 92% of high school students have tried drinking alcoholic beverages, with beer being the preferred beverage. Marijuana ranks second to alcohol in frequency of use (United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1971). A study done by Gold and Reimer (1972), does not support the notion that increased drug use would correlate with increased crime.

Delinquent Behavior Profile

Crime

Causative factors for the youth crime rate are hypothesized in a recent article ("The Youth Crime Plague," 1977). Those factors mentioned were unemployment, slum housing, inadequate schools, and the pathology of the ghetto. The magnitude of the problem can be illustrated by the fact that in 1976, young people, aged 22 and younger, accounted for almost 60% of all criminal arrests. Sixteen percent of the population of the United States is made up of young people 10 to 17 years

of age while accounting for 45% of those arrested for serious crime (Mathias, 1977).

From 1960 to 1967 there was a 59% increase in the number of juvenile arrests (Richette, 1969). "During 1975, motor vehicle theft, arson, burglary, and vandalism recorded high percentages of juvenile referrals" (Crime in the United States, 1975; Uniform Crime Reports, 1975).

"Youth arrests for all crimes rose 138% from 1960 through 1974. Proportionately, juveniles (Those under age 18) are the largest contributors to the nation's crime problem. The number of juvenile arrests in 1974 was about 1.7 million, more than 27% of the total arrests for all age groups. In that same year, juveniles accounted for about 45% of all arrests for serious crimes" (United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1977, p. 1).

In a December 1977, CBS 60 Minute Documentary, Dan Rather reported that more than half of all crimes in 1977 were committed by teens; many of whom are victims of uncaring parents and communities. This is consistent with Time magazine ("The Youth Crime Plague," July, 1977) where it was stated that juvenile crime has increased at twice the rate of adults since 1960.

Many delinquents come from environments where structure is conspicuously lacking. A gang provides the ghetto youth with the structure missing at home ("The Youth Crime Plague," 1977). The most outstanding single characteristic of the street gang member seems to be a high proclivity for violence (Friedman, Mann, and Friedman, 1975). Approximately 25% of juvenile crime is committed in urban settings by gangs. Characteristic of the times, today's urban gangs are "better organized than ever, more heavily armed, and less queasy about the blood they spill," ("The Youth Crime Plague," 1977, p. 20).

A distinction can be made between gangs and groups. The gang is a relatively large, highly developed membership having an elaborate organization including such roles as leaders and lieutenants. The gang is a close knit organization and excites disapproval and opposition within the community (Cloward, and Ohlin, 1960).

The delinquent group is perceived as a small group who, without provocation, violate laws. The group is neither elaborate nor identifiable as in the gang. Also, unlike the gang, whose members often have lengthy criminal records, group members are seldom repeat offenders within the same group context.

Continued frustration at one's attempts at success will likely lead a person to crime (Cohen, 1955). In contrast, Yochelson and Samenow (1977), believe that "thinking patterns" in habitual criminals may be distinguished from noncriminals. They further contend that habitual offenders are more victimizers than victims of society through their rejection of society and its concomitant responsibilities. Those individuals charged with noncriminal behaviors such as truancy, runaway, or out-of-control represent more than one-third of the national case load being processed through our juvenile courts (Mauser, 1974).

Persons committing crimes against persons are primarily emotional offenders, whereas, persons committing crimes against property are basically nonemotional and committed for financial gain (Inbau and Reid, 1967). Richette (1969) disagrees. She states that the more affluent delinquents tend toward crimes against property while the less affluent commit crimes against persons. A study done in the Southwestern state where the present investigation is being conducted (Oklahoma Association for Children with Learning Disabilities, 1974), indicated that property crimes made up the largest single category of offenses.

Violence

Characteristics of the potentially violent youth include a history of child abuse, alcoholic parents, and dehumanized relationships (Jampolsky and Haight, 1974). Button's (1973) study indicated a high correlation between the amount and severity of physical punishment endured by children and the amount and severity of antisocial aggressiveness displayed during adolescence. "It is as natural for a maltreated child to grow up to carry a knife as it is for a loved and cared for child to carry a pen or pencil" ("The Battered Children," 1977, p. 112). The violent youth is king of the streets, especially in big city ghettos ("The Youth Crime Plague," 1977).

The FBI Index of Reported Crimes classifies homicide, rape, robbery, and assault as violent crimes because they involve doing or threatening bodily injury (Radzinowicz and Wolfgang, 1971). Not all crimes, however, are violent. In 1968, only 13% of the FBI's Index of Reported Crimes were violent. Apparently, violent crime in urban America produces more fear than statistics (Radzinowicz and Wolfgang, 1971).

Some authorities believe that filmed violence is a catalyst for delinquency (Jampolsky and Haight, 1974). Radzinowicz and Wolfgang (1971), maintain, however, that the news media does not play an important role in the contagion of criminal behavior.

Radzinowicz and Wolfgang (1971), list several points as important with regard to the commission of violent crimes in the United States: (a) occurrence is primarily in large cities (Moynihan, 1969); (b) major offenders are overwhelmingly of the male gender; (c) urban violent crime is concentrated primarily on youths between the ages of 15 and 24; (d) the commission of the crimes has been primarily by individuals at the lower end of the socioeconomic scale; (e) the victims and offenders have very similar characteristics; and (f) repeaters account for the greatest proportion of serious violence. Adolescents committing violent crimes do not experience guilt. Instead, delinquents neutralize their guilt through a series of denials. These denials include (a) responsibility; (b) injury; (c) presence of a victim; (d) condemnation of accusers; and (e) appeal to higher loyalties like those of the peer group (Culbertson and Shrink, 1974).

Recidivism

Although no overall relationship has been established between severity of offenses and rate of recidivism (Ganzer and Saranson, 1973), the younger a person is upon release from incarceration, the more likely that person is to become a repeat offender (Roberts and Erikson, 1974). Sealey and Banks (1971) report, however, that delinquents with relatively high maturity levels were less likely to be recommitted.

The recidivism rate among incarcerated juveniles is higher than their adult counterparts ("An Oklahoma Epidemic: Kids in Trouble," 1977). It has been reported that approximately 90% of the residents in

correctional institutions are repeat offenders ("Problems of Juvenile Delinquency," 1974).

Litwack and Hebert (1967) and Ganzer and Saranson (1973) suggest potential predictors of recidivism. Litwack and Hebert (1967), list: (a) the number of times an individual is placed in the discipline cottage; (b) the age at which the first court appearance was made; and (c) the age of the mother at the time of the offender's birth. Potential recidivism predictors considered to be the most promising are delineated by Ganzer and Saranson (1973): (a) family background; (b) age at first offense and commitment; and (c) diagnostic classification.

Performance in the Outward Bound Program is cited by Baer, Jacobs, and Carr (1975) as being a useful predictor of recidivism. Virtually, every delinquent who successfully completed a selected Outward Bound program was still free within a five year follow up period.

Gold and Williams (1969) concluded that apprehension actually encourages delinquency. In their study on 35 matched pairs, it was found that the recidivism rate was higher when there was any type of official intervention.

Scholastic Profile

Schools

The manifestation of delinquent behavior by adolescents is symptomatic of problems in the immediate environment. In order for change agents to ameliorate deviant adolescent behavior, the environment of the adolescent must be examined to determine an explanation for the behavior demonstrated (Culbertson and Schrink, 1974). Culbertson and Schrink (1974) also believe that school is one of the three most important aspects of the delinquent's environment: family and peer groups being the other two.

Alienation between parents and siblings can stymie learning and/or cause the child to underdevelop an adequate conscience (McCord, McCord and Zola, 1959). This idea is further supported by Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968), who found that delinquent behavior is nurtured and enhanced through the organizational policies and procedures demonstrated in many schools.

"A school system that further alienates the already alienated child cannot reasonably demand - or expect - regular attendance" (Richette, 1969, p. 236). Of the one million children dropping out of school each year, one in three will have some type of police contact (Schreiber, 1970). Serious maladjustment problems show up in one-half of the 30% of pupils not finishing high school (Ahlstrom & Havighurst, 1971). The National Education Association (1959) states that delinquency is ten times higher among drop outs than high school graduates.

As a group, delinquents are not academic achievers. If they have not dropped out of school completely, they have fallen behind their peer age group. Generally speaking, the grades they do make are below average (Markley, 1974).

School will enhance a child's problem if that child comes to the school from an inadequate family (Polk & Schafer, 1972). These individuals find formal education to be problematic rather than problem solving. Some factors contributing to the behavior of youths and their lack of school success include (a) norm-referenced intelligence scores which often shape the attitudes of teachers toward the students; (b) the use of irrelevant textbooks and materials; (c) inappropriate teaching methods for the student population; (d) the practice of testing and subsequent grouping; and (e) parental attitudes toward education (Tyler, 1951).

In Critchley's (1964) study, approximately 75% of the young offenders in France were found to be non-readers. Ahlstrom and Havighurst (1971) found juvenile delinquents to be three years below grade level in reading and arithmetic achievement.

Shaw (1966) reported on an analysis of the juvenile delinquent student's interest and success in academics. The report indicated that (a) work dependent on self-expression generally flourishes from the beginning; (b) subjects such as History and Geography, which deal in external facts come more slowly; (c) Geometry and Mathematics are more difficult for the adolescent delinquent due to the necessity for clear reasoning; (d) Music, and then (e) Creative Writing are the most difficult.

For many slum youths, the American dream of education for everyone is not realistic. "Many American schools have become jumping off points into delinquency, rather than stepping stones to a better way of life" (Richette, 1969, p. 324). At least one author (Tarnopol, 1970), has determined a high correlation between delinquency and school failure. The United States Department of Health,

Education, and Welfare (1977), report indicated a correlation between children having learning problems and children exhibiting delinquent characteristics.

Not all children are ready for formal schooling at the legally required age. Because of developmental inconsistencies, some children may never develop the academic skills necessary to succeed in school. Failing from the beginning, interest in school will wane, and the individual will do something causing recognition by the juvenile justice system. There is a disproportionate contribution to delinquency from those youth failing in school (Radzinowicz & Wolfgang, 1971). The contribution schools are making to delinquency will continue until and unless educational changes are made in the schools (Clarizio & McCoy, 1976).

It is the school where many of our youth suffer their most painful failure. It is in the school that a youth learns he is incapable of learning.

Intelligence Quotient

Tarnopol (1970) found that delinquents with higher intelligence levels commit more crimes and are arrested less often than their peers having lower intelligence levels. However, Ausubel (1965), indicated that lower intelligence is unrelated to delinquency when taken as an entity unto itself. The inference is that lower intelligence increases suggestibility and the probability of being caught.

Special Learning Problems

Of those individuals admitted to juvenile detention centers, 80% are from two to five years below grade level achievement in at least one of the areas of (a) reading; (b) spelling, or (c) arithmetic ("A Voice in the Wilderness," 1976). Schmideberg (1961) declared that a reading retardation of even three months should be regarded seriously and remediated immediately.

Many delinquents are simultaneously functioning below their ability level and are consequently behind in achievement (Raymaker, 1974). Poor adaptive abilities of future delinquents becomes evident by the end of the third grade (Conger & Miller, 1966). Concurrent factors include (a) a failure to understand the need for rules and regulations in social groups; (b) resentment and rejection of authority in the school situation; (c) being easily distracted in academics, and (d) less willing to treat others courteously (Conger & Miller, 1966).

A bad attitude has been a trademark of the youthful delinquent regarding his interaction with teachers. Specifically, the delinquent dislikes those school subjects requiring strict logical reasoning, persistency of effort, and good memory (Mauser, 1974).

In many cases, there is a close relationship between learning disabilities and juvenile delinquency ("A Voice in the Wilderness," 1976; U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1977). In order for the learning disabled student to achieve maximally in the school setting, the specific learning disability must be fully diagnosed and treated. Without early diagnosis and remediation, development of deviant behavior patterns may ensue (Faigel, n.d.).

Adjudication

Tappan (1949), stated that up to the age of seven, children were not held responsible for their criminal behavior due to a supposed lack of mental capacity. From seven to fourteen years of age, children were still not liable . . . but then for reasons of immaturity. From age fourteen to twenty-one it was said that an individual did possess criminal capacity and from age twenty-one on, the age factor was considered to be conclusive.

There is a substantial numerical decrease as one observes the number of crimes known to police, to those cases where an arrest is made, to court appearances, to convictions resulting from court appearances, and finally to imprisonment (LaFave, 1969). According to Dan Rather in a December, 1977 CBS 60 Minutes Documentary, a recent New York Survey found that of every 100 arrests, 44 went to court, and only 3 were sentenced. A percentage figure of 5-20% can be projected for that portion of the youth population manifesting behavior which leads to the adjudication process (Severns, Bell, & Gregnano, 1976).

The way an adolescent is processed through the juvenile justice system is varied and dependent. Basically, four factors are involved: (a) which person or agency first demonstrated concern for the child; (b) the moods and biases of the local judge; (c) the socioeconomic background of the adolescent's family; and (d) community or state resources where the child lives (James, 1970).

One influential factor in the adjudication process is cost. Court appointed attorneys and pretrial investigations are but two of the necessary but costly steps in adjudication (Rosen & Carl, 1974).

Garabedian (1974) reports his observations in the prosecution of cases in which a negative correlation was shown between the cases prosecuted. "The deputy district attorneys were least likely to prosecute those cases that had been referred by police departments having the highest charging rates" (p. 170).

Police disposition of juvenile offenders is not always the same and is dependent on extraneous variables. Some of the variables include the (a) nature of the offense, (b) recidivism rate of the offender, and (c) parental ability to hire and pay for legal counsel.

A major factor in police determination of official action is subjective regarding the ability of a family to control the behavior of the apprehended sibling (Gold, 1971).

Adjudicatory Statuses

The County Juvenile Bureau of the county from which this investigation was undertaken has the following divisions in their adjudicatory statuses:

"Child in Need of Supervision . . . Refers to any person under eighteen years who is habitually truant from school or who is beyond the control of his parents, guardian, or legal custodian or habitually departs himself so as to injure or endanger the health or morals of himself or others.

Delinquent Child . . . (1) Any male or female under the age of eighteen who has violated any federal or state law or municipal ordinance, excepting a traffic statute or ordinance or any lawful order of the court; (2) A child who has habitually violated traffic laws or ordinances.

Dependent/Neglected Child . . . Any persons under the age of eighteen years who is for any reason destitute, homeless or abandoned; or who depends on the public for support; or who has not the proper parental care or guardianship, or whose home is deemed unfit; or who is in need of special care because of physical or mental conditions and his parents, custodians, or guardian is unable to provide it (Oklahoma County Juvenile Bureau, 1974, Note 1)."

Successful Change Agents

Studt (1965), suggested seven areas of expertise of which the change agent should be cognizant: (a) the delinquent's perception of the world; (b) the delinquent's self-image; (c) the value system of the delinquent; (d) the dynamics of

the delinquent's family constellation; (e) peer influence on the delinquent; (f) the delinquent's perception of authority figures; and (g) realistic expectations for the delinquent. In essence, if one knows the delinquent as a person, one can expect a more in-depth approach to the disposition of a delinquent's alleged delinquency. If the change agent knows how the juvenile delinquent thinks, feels, and acts toward himself and others, treatment will be more practical and humanistic. This is consistent with James; (1970) conceptualization regarding premises of agreement among successful change agents. That is, virtually all unacceptable behavior is learned. Also, if given individualized loving care, all children can be helped while at the same time improving the environment which spawned the behavior. If this is not possible, the person needs to be given strength to cope with the destructive environment.

In order to effect change, delinquents must alter their dedication to the delinquent system. They must be made to feel anxious regarding the value of delinquency to them. Several requirements for the change agent having charge of delinquents have been delineated by Mauser (1974): (a) affective and physical acceptance should be communicated; (b) one should expect the best; (c) positive individual self-concept should be developed; (d) clearly defined limits should be established and maintained; (e) develop the ability to watch people; (f) don't expect too much too soon.

Finally, crime and juvenile delinquency cost the American taxpayer \$88 billion per year. If prevention of crime and delinquency is to become a reality, change agents must be cognizant of the relationship between behavior and learning. Children with disturbing behaviors do not learn as well as or easily as other children (Pooley, 1977).

Diagnostic Tools

The importance of the accumulation of accurate diagnostic data cannot be over-emphasized since such data is often the link in determining an effective rehabilitation/intervention strategy. Such data should include both formal and informal assessments of both academic and vocational abilities. The popularity of the Wechsler Scales is at least partly due to their potential use as a diagnostic tool (Sacuzzo & Lewandowski, 1976), but these are insufficient data if used alone.

Although an examiner can influence a testing situation and the subsequent accomplishments of the subject

(Guertin, Rabin, Frank, & Ladd, 1962), age does not significantly influence the patterns of scaled scores (Holt, 1968). Cohen (1959), determined that child and adult achievement on the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC) and Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS) are comparable from age 13 years, six months on.

There is a tendency for delinquents to score higher on the Performance rather than the Verbal sections of the intelligence tests (Caplan, 1965). Performance IQ's being significantly greater than Verbal IQ's is the general pattern found in individuals with acting-out tendencies (Ogdon, 1977).

The most characteristic pattern of performance for adolescent sociopaths on the WAIS is a higher Performance IQ than Verbal IQ (Wechsler, 1958). A Performance IQ which is significantly above the Verbal IQ is primarily found in individuals who are acting-out. Personality types typically scoring higher on the Performance section include psychopaths, sociopaths, narcissistic character disorders (Blatt & Allison, 1968; Gilber, 1969; Guertin, Rabin, Frank & Ladd, 1962), and adolescent delinquents (Glueck & Glueck, 1964; Pope & Scott, 1967).

An irony of delinquent populations is the achievement of relatively high scores on the Picture Arrangement subtest of the Wechsler Scales. Such data suggest that antisocial individuals have a good grasp of social situations (Wechsler, 1958). When accompanied by a significantly higher Performance IQ over Verbal IQ, an unusually high Picture Arrangement subtest score may indicate delinquent tendencies. Inferred is the ability of the individual to be shrewd and manipulative of people and to scheme without regard for the social manipulative of people and to scheme without regard for the social consequences of the schemes (Allison, Blatt, & Zimet, 1968; Gilbert, 1969; Rabin & McKinney, 1972).

Prevention/Treatment

To set up an effective prevention/recognition program, knowledge of predelinquent behavior is necessary. The characteristics of aggressiveness, truancy, and out-of-control behavior could all be indicative of delinquency (Blos, 1961).

Prevention and treatment are dependent on the individual's perception of the problem (Clarizio & McCoy, 1976). Many workers in the field of delinquency have not been trained appropriately with respect to etiological theory (Gibbons, 1965). In general, there seems to be inadequate preventive services for youth. As a nation, America has

been recalcitrant in her responsibility to the youthful population within her boundaries. A problem resulting from lack of prevention is that many of this nation's youthful population will not have the means available to them to develop to their fullest capacity as productive human beings (Hurd, 1953).

The term "prevention" is one which connotes anticipation or readiness. The goal of delinquency prevention would then be to develop sufficient skills such that those individuals in need will be able to satisfactorily negotiate the social system (Ullmann & Krasner, 1975). In order to prevent, treat, or rehabilitate those individuals who break the laws, some particulars in the environment must be identified as causal to the problem.

There are five major aims of delinquency and deviant social behavior and treatment. They are: (a) social and psychological rehabilitation; (b) elimination of symptoms; (c) protection of the environment; (d) protection of the young person from the environment; and (e) deterring the offender and his peers from a repetition of the behavior ("Problems of Juvenile Delinquency," 1974).

Three basic approaches to the treatment of delinquency have been proposed: (a) an individual approach, (b) a group approach, and/or (c) punishment. The individual method has been and is used by psychiatrists, psychologists, and social workers, while the group method is most popular with teachers and recreation specialists. Punishment is most often used when staff are untrained and when more appropriate methods of treatment are unknown (Coates, Miller, & Ohlin, 1975).

The educational component accompanying treatment has come in the form of training schools. An alternative would be the child advocacy program in which all services are brought together for the welfare of the child. This would include the placement of the adjudicated delinquent into a culture where positive, helping concepts are stressed (Lybarger, 1976).

Typically, the offender is treated as a malfunctioning machine while the therapist is viewed as a mechanic whose job is to repair the machine (Gibbons, 1965). Too often, inadequate finances and case loads which are too large inhibit the effective implementation of rehabilitative goals. The method of choice is contingent on the professional training and personality of the change agent and his/her clientele (Trojanowicz, 1973).

Over the years, delinquency prevention efforts have had little success. Most contemporary approaches to the delinquency model direct their efforts toward individuals and small groups. Mech (1975) delineates seven small scale delinquent prevention approaches: (a) individual services; (b) group services; (c) special education provisions; (d) social learning; (e) community outreach; (f) adult models; and (g) work experience.

Those interventions focusing solely on the child while ignoring environmental conditions such as family, school, and community have proven to be ineffective and inefficient (Apter, in press). Conversely, another approach to lowering the rising delinquency rates is to meet the needs of the delinquents and furnish them with needed services. (Weser, Welsh, and Hunsicker, 1973).

Graubard (1969) discussed reasons concerning the failure of educational approaches. He concludes that educational procedures will continue to be ineffective, for the most part, until a more harmonious relationship can be established between the disparate worlds of the educator and the delinquent.

There are four strategies basically employed with the incarcerated juvenile. Priority is generally given to institutionalization; secondly, to punishment; followed by rehabilitation and reintegrative programs. Eighty-seven percent of institutionalized children have been viewed as having at least minimal emotional disturbance; 16% are judged as having severe behavior problems or emotional disturbance (Coates, Miller, and Ohlin, 1975).

Orlando and Black (1975) state that courts have been thought of traditionally in terms of reconciling the interests of society with regard to the apprehended juvenile as well as an avenue through which rehabilitative services for deviant youth might be obtained. In reality, the juvenile court

"has not succeeded significantly in rehabilitating delinquent youth, in reducing or even stemming the tide of delinquency, or in bringing justice and compassion to the child offender" (President's Commission on Law Enforcement, 1967, p. 80).

Is school pressure responsible for the periodic increases in incoming case loads for the juvenile justice system? Court cases increase with the opening of school in September and January and decrease when school is not in session (Garcia, 1976). Our juvenile justice system is a masquerade.

Incarceration is called rehabilitation (Mathias, 1977). Rarely has imprisonment had a positive effect on a prisoner. Generally, the opposite is true. That is, the delinquent is more likely to become even more intensely antisocial (Barcai and Rabkin, 1974; James, 1970).

Rehabilitation efforts have been largely unsuccessful with the delinquent population (Messinger, 1977). Medical model treatment of delinquents as sick individuals (Baker, 1920; Nir and Cutler, 1973) has been equally disappointing.

Traditional treatment approaches in institutional settings with juvenile offenders have not been encouraging (Emery and Marholin, 1977; Caditz, 1959). Apparently, institutions are not even potentially capable of success (Wetmore, 1971). Development of an adequate prevention/intervention program should be based on the anticipation of immature behavior and subsequent mature behavior from adults functioning as change agents. It should be remembered by change agents that many youths have learned to associate adult intervention with adult rejection (Long and Deem, 1975). Untreated delinquency will ultimately cost society more than the capital outlay necessary to establish an effective treatment program (Wetmore, 1971).

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of the present investigation was to develop a profile containing three major components which would interact to form a descriptive profile of the adjudicated adolescent. As used in this investigation, the term interact refers to a compilation of descriptive information rather than statistical data. This chapter delineates the procedures utilized in this investigation.

Subjects for the Study

The subjects utilized in this study were randomly selected from the case files of a licensed psychologist who was serving as a consultant to a juvenile bureau. The office of the psychologist and the juvenile bureau were located in a large metropolitan area of the Southwestern United States. The random sample of subjects consisted of 200 adolescents between the ages of 13 years 6 months and 19 years 11 months. The subjects had been referred between January, 1974, and March, 1978, to the consulting psychologist who completed a comprehensive psychological, intellectual, and scholastic evaluation on each subject.

The ethnicity, sex, and age range of all 200 subjects selected for the study are delineated in Table 1.

Table 1

Subjects Utilized in the Present Study
Reported by Age Range, Race, and Sex

Subjects Reported by Chronological Age Range	Total Number		Race/Sex of Subjects					
			Black		White		Other	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
13 years 6 months- ¹ 14 years 11 months	(46)							
	21	25	3	2	18	21	0	2
15 years 0 months- 17 years 11 months	(142)							
	122	20	34	1	83	16	5	3
18 years 0 months- ² 19 years 11 months	(12)							
	11	1	6	0	5	1	0	0
TOTALS	154	46	43	3	106	38	5	5
	200		46		144		10	

¹ 13 years 6 months selected as youngest age based on comparability of WISC and WAIS scores (Cohen, 1959).

Of the 200 subjects there were 154 males and 46 females. Within this group there were 46 Black subjects, 144 White subjects, and 10 subjects who were Indian-American or Mexican-American. There were 46 subjects in the age range of 13 years 6 months to 14 years 11 months; 142 subjects were in the age range of 15 years 0 months to 17 years 11 months; and 12 subjects were in the age range of 18 years 0 months to 19 years 11 months.

Obtaining the Data

Permission to conduct this investigation and to review each of the selected confidential case files was obtained through the licensed psychologist. Anonymity of the subjects, personnel, and the special institutions involved was insured.

The case files for the subjects utilized in this study were randomly selected from the composite case files housed in the office suite of the consulting psychologist by secretarial personnel. Although this randomization process fails to comply with the recommended randomization procedures, it was only under these conditions that the case files were available to the investigator. Any case files selected by the secretarial personnel which did not meet the age specification, age 13 years 6 months to 19 years 11 months, delineated for this study were rejected.

Statistical Design

Information obtained from the 200 case studies of adjudicated adolescents were analyzed and will be summarized and presented in tabular form. Descriptive statistics were used in order to describe the homogeneity of the sample population. The statistical tools used were (a) frequencies, (b) percentages, (c) means, (d) ranges, (e) one way analyses of variance, (f) chi squares, (g) Pearson's *r*'s, and (h) point biserials. The .01 level of significance has been established for the reporting of statistical significance.

The data obtained from the 200 case studies have been illustrated in tabular form for each of the areas of demographic data, delinquent behavior data, and scholastic data. Common factors occurring in each table include (a) age, (b) race, and (c) sex. Data have been reported, whenever appropriate, in frequencies, percentages, means, ranges, one way analyses of variance, chi squares, Pearson's *r*'s, and point biserials.

There were three age divisions: (a) young, (age 13-14); (b) middle, (age 15-17); and (c) older, (age 18-19). Race was likewise divided into three categories consisting of (a) Black, (b) White, and (c) other which included Mexican-Americans and American-Indians. Each racial category has been divided into two sections: (a) male and (b) female.

The analysis of the data was performed and tables were constructed to clarify information related to (a) demographic data, (b) delinquent behavior data, and (c) scholastic data. Collectively, these subprofiles make up the descriptive profile. Each subprofile is a significant part of the Gestalt in that without the support of each subprofile, the descriptive profile would be without substance.

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Information obtained from the 200 case studies of adjudicated adolescents have been analyzed and presented in this section in such a way that two questions may be answered.

1. For which offenses are delinquents of different ages most frequently adjudicated?
2. Is there a relationship among demographic data, delinquent behavior data, and scholastic data at the time of adjudication?

In order to answer these questions, data obtained from the case files of 200 adjudicated adolescents were used. The data included psychological, intellectual, and scholastic evaluations of each subject. Additionally, information was accrued through self report background data on each subject.

Descriptive statistics have been utilized in analyzing the data in order to effectively describe the homogeneity of the adjudicated adolescent sample population. The descriptive statistics used include (a) frequencies, (b) percentages, (c) means, (d) ranges, (e) Pearson's r's, (f) chi squares, (g) one way analysis of variance, and (h) point biserials.

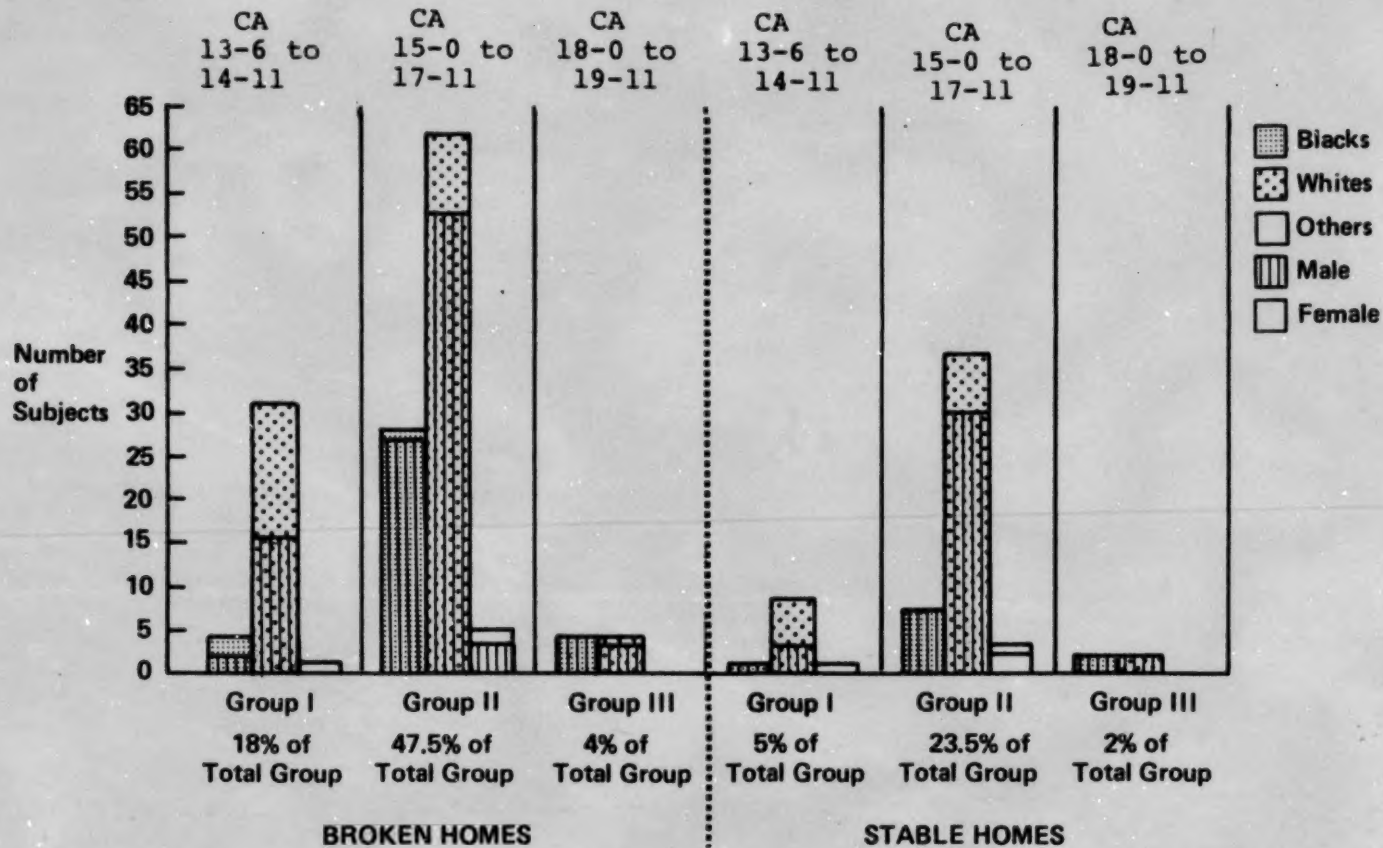
Descriptive Profile

Home Status

Data presented in Table 2 illustrate the status of home conditions at the time of adjudication for all subjects reported by age range, race, and sex. The greatest number of subjects reported as being from broken homes are white males in Group II, the 15-0 to 17-11 age category. Collectively, subjects from broken homes made up 69.5% of the delinquents studied in this investigation. Hence, only 30.5% of the delinquents studied had been living at home with both natural parents prior to adjudication for their present offense(s).

Table 2

Status of Home Conditions at the Time of Adjudication for all Subjects Reported by Age Range, Race, and Sex.



Family Data

Data presented in Table 3 provides a comparison of family data reported for all subjects by age range, race, and sex. The greatest number of subjects reported were white males in the 15-0 to 17-11 age category. In this category, the range of siblings reported for the white male category was 1-8, with 41 subjects falling within the lower 50% of the birth order in their respective families. The mean number of siblings per family was 4.0 for this age group.

Sex

A summary of the sex of all subjects reported by race and age range is provided in Table 4. From the sample population of 200, there were 83 white males in the 15-0 to 17-11 age category. This represents 58.5% of all 15-0 to 17-11 subjects utilized in this investigation.

Chronological Age

A summary of mean chronological ages reported for all subjects by status of home condition is provided in Tables 5 and 6. For the age categories 13-6 to 17-11, black subjects had a higher mean chronological age than their white counterparts. In the 18-0 to 19-11 age category, the n's and mean chronological ages were identical for whites and blacks.

School Status

Data presented in Table 7 provides an analysis of the school status of the subjects studied. For the age category of 13-6 to 14-11, Group I, 93.4% of the subjects were in school at the time of their present adjudication; whereas, for Group II, the 15-0 to 17-0 age category, 64.1% were in school. For Group III, the age category 18-0 to 19-11, only 33.3% were in school.

Incarcerated Family Members

A comparison of subject's immediate family members who had been incarcerated previously or were incarcerated at the time of the subjects' present adjudication reported by age range, race, and sex is illustrated in Table 8. In the present investigation, white subjects were more frequently (9.5%) members of families in which immediate family members had been or were incarcerated at the time of subjects' adjudication.

TABLE 3

Family Data Reported for All Subjects by
Age Range, Race, and Sex

Race and Sex of Subjects	13 years 6 months - 14 years 11 months (N 46)			
	No. of Subjects	Range of Sib- lings per Family	X No. Siblings per Family	No. of Subjects* in Lower 50% of Birth Order
Black Male	3	5-9	6.6	N 1
Black Female	2	2-8	5.0	0
White Male	18	1-10	4.3	12
White Female	21	1-12	4.0	9
Other Male	0	0	.0	0
Other Female	2	2-9	5.5	1

Race and Sex of Subjects	15 years 0 months - 17 years 11 months (N 142)			
	No. of Subjects	Range of Sib- lings per Family	X No. Siblings per Family	No. of Subjects* in Lower 50% of Birth Order
Black Male	34	1-10	5.2	N 15
Black Female	1	-9	9.0	0
White Male	83	1-8	4.0	41
White Female	16	1-12	4.5	9
Other Male	5	1-9	3.5	3
Other Female	3	4-6	4.7	3

Race and Sex of Subjects	18 years 0 months - 19 years 11 months (N 12)			
	No. of Subjects	Range of Sib- lings per Family	X No. Siblings per Family	No. of Subjects* in Lower 50% of Birth Order
Black Male	6	3-10	5.6	N 3
Black Female	0	0	0	0
White Male	5	2-5	3.0	4
White Female	1	-3	3.0	0
Other Male	0	0	0	0
Other Female	0	0	0	0

* Represents only those subjects for whom data were available.

TABLE 4
Sex of All Subjects Reported by Race and Age Range

Age and Sex of Subjects	13 years 6 months - 14 years 11 months (N 46)		15 years 0 months - 17 years 11 months (N 142)		18 years 0 months - 19 years 11 months (N 12)		Total (N 200)	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Black Male	3	6.5	34	23.9	6	50.0	43	21.5
Black Female	2	4.3	1	.7	0	0	3	1.5
(Total)	5	(10.9)	(35)	(24.7)	(6)	(50.0)	(46)	(23.0)
White Male	18	39.1	83	58.5	5	41.7	106	53.0
White Female	21	45.6	16	11.3	1	8.3	38	19.0
(Total)	39	(84.8)	(99)	(69.7)	(6)	(50.0)	(144)	(72.0)
Other Male	0	0	5	3.5	0	0	5	2.5
Other Female	2	4.3	3	2.1	0	0	5	2.5
(Total)	2	(4.3)	(8)	(5.6)	(0)	(0)	(10)	(5.0)
Combined Sexes								
All Male	21	45.6	122	85.9	11	91.7	154	77.0
All Female	25	54.3	20	14.1	1	8.3	46	23.0
Total	46	100.0	142	100.0	12	100.0	200	100.0

Table 5

Mean Chronological Ages for Subjects Reported as Being From Stable Homes.

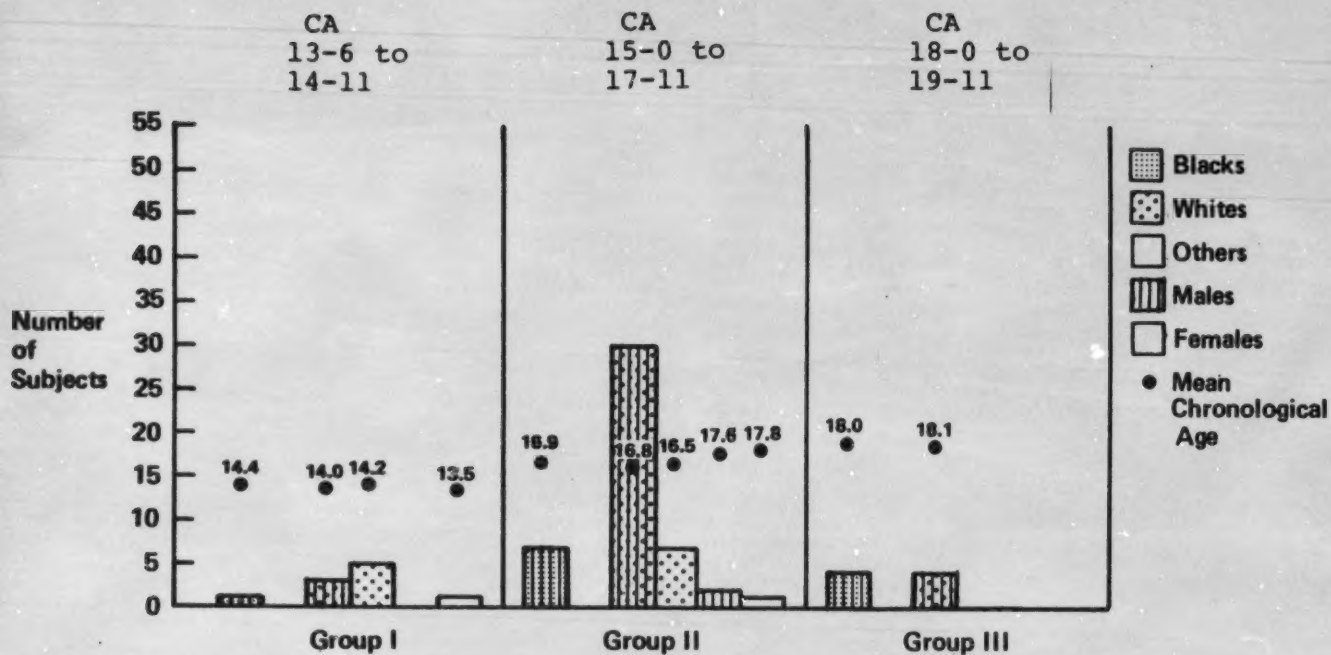


Table 6

Mean Chronological Ages for Subjects Reported as Being From Broken Homes.

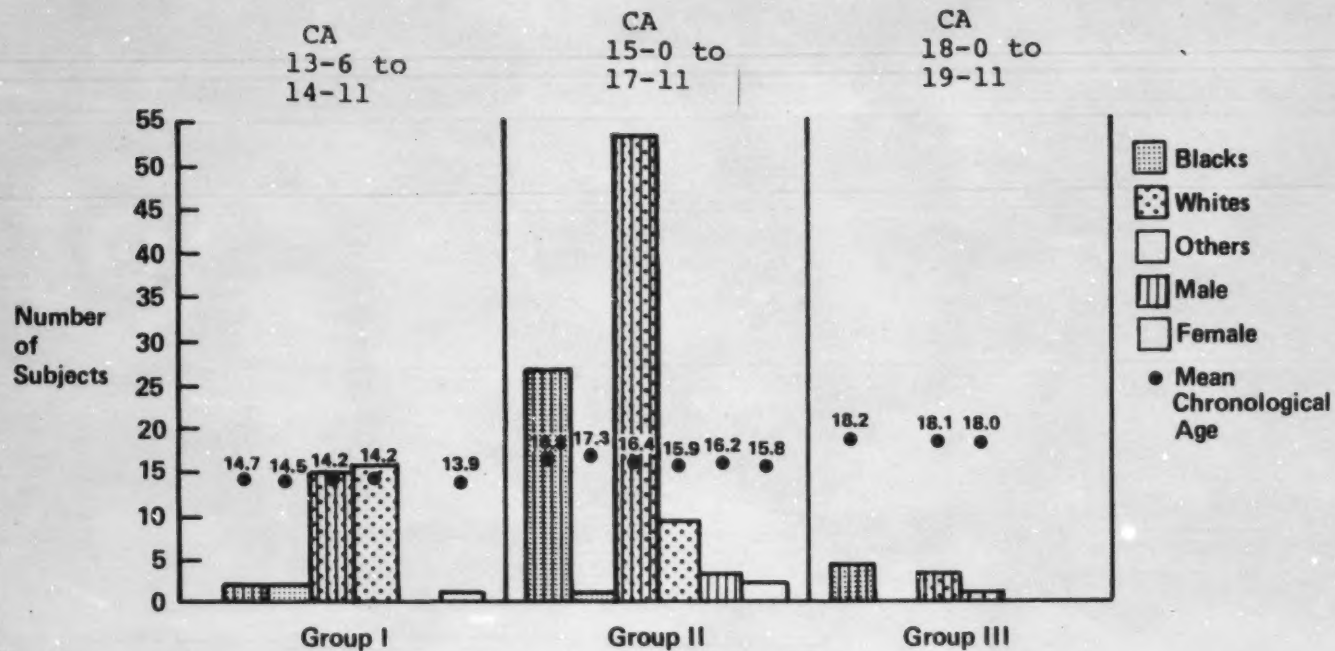


Table 7

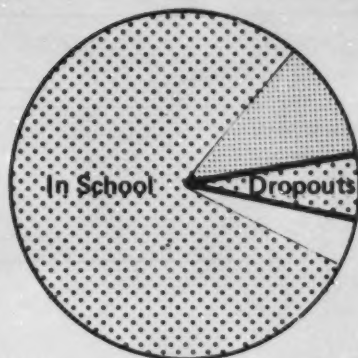
School Status of All Subjects Reported by Age Range, Sex, and Race.

Of 200 Subjects Studied —

Group I — 21.5% In School
— 1.5% Dropouts

Group II — 45.5% In School
— 25.5% Dropouts

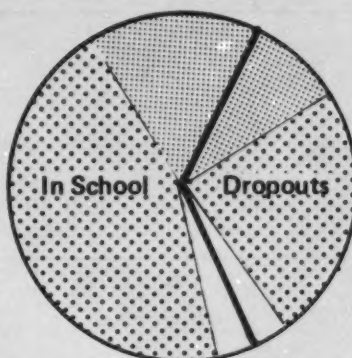
Group III — 2.0% In School
— 4.0% Dropouts



Group I

In School — 93.4%
Black — 10.9%
White — 78.2%
Other — 4.3%

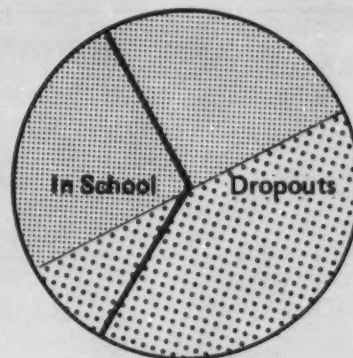
Dropouts — 6.5%
White — 6.5%



Group II

In School — 64.1%
Black — 16.2%
White — 45.1%
Other — 2.8%

Dropouts — 35.9%
Black — 8.4%
White — 24.7%
Other — 2.8%



Group III

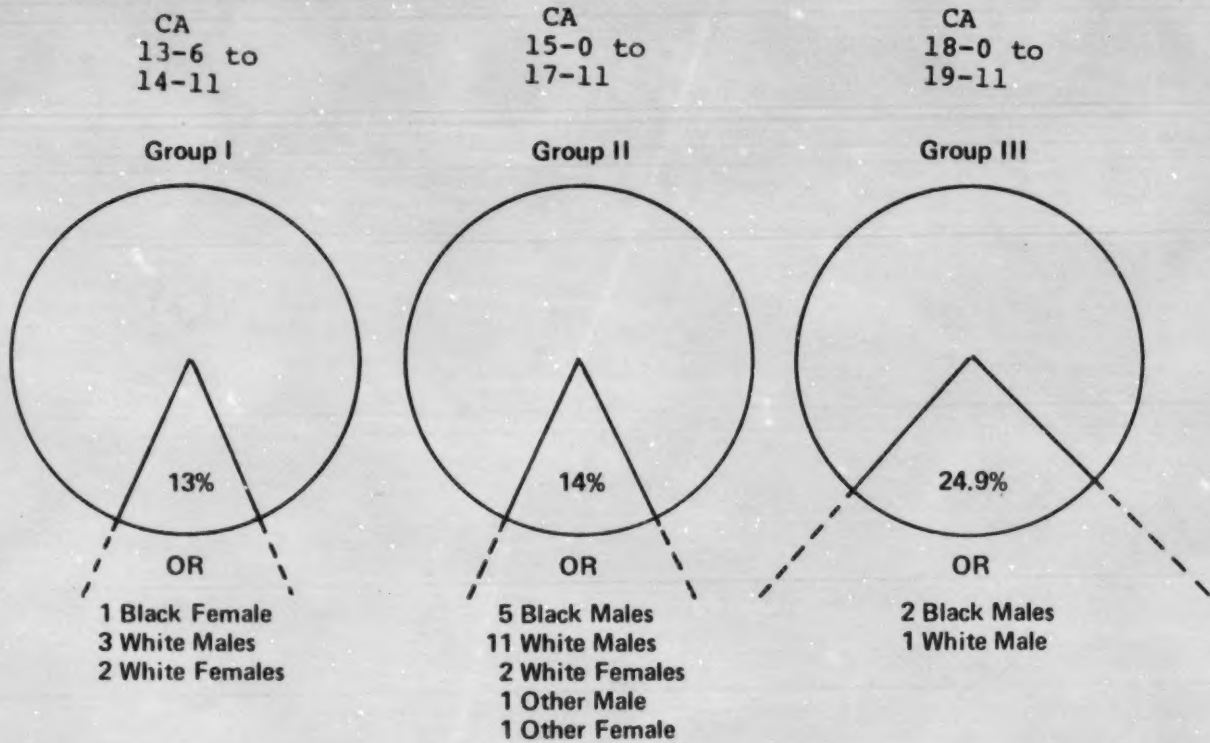
In School — 33.3%
Black — 25.0%
White — 8.3%
Other — 0

Dropouts — 66.7%
Black — 25.0%
White — 41.7%
Other — 0

Blacks
Whites
Others

Table 8

Subjects Immediate Family Members Who Were Incarcerated at the Time of the Subjects' Present Adjudication Reported by Age Range, Race, and Sex.



Drug Intake

Two percent of the black subjects, 11.5% of the white subjects and fewer than 1% of the other subjects reported that they had experienced some type of drug intake just prior to committing the offense(s) for which they were adjudicated (at the time of the present investigation).

School Suspension

The age range, race, and sex of those subjects who indicated they had experienced a formal suspension from normal school activities is provided in Table 9. White males in the 15-0 to 17-11 age category were reported as being more frequently suspended than all other 15-0 to 17-11 age groups combined.

Offenses Committed

A comparison of offenses committed by the subjects in this investigation reported by age range, race, sex, and the nature of the offenses is presented in Table 10. White females were the predominant group in the 13-6 to 14-11 age category for nonadult offenses. In the 15-0 to 17-11 age category, white males were adjudicated more frequently in each categorical offense area. In the 18-0 to 19-11 age category, black males, white males, and white females were dispersed in a nearly equal manner in terms of adjudicatory status.

Previous Adjudication

A comparison of previous offenses committed by subjects in this investigation reported by age range, race, sex, and nature of the offense is provided in Table 11. In the 13-6 to 14-11 age category, white males and females accounted for all but one adjudicated offense. The 15-0 to 17-11 age category was more diverse, however. The only group not reporting at least one adjudication was the black females. White males accounted for 46.6% of all the offenses committed for their age group in this investigation. In the 18-0 to 19-11 age category, white males and black males were the only groups reporting. Black males accounted for 58.3% of the criminal offenses in that age group, while white males accounted for 24.9% of the criminal offenses.

TABLE 9

Subjects Who Indicated They Had a Suspension
From Normal School Activities Reported by
Age Range, Race, and Sex

Race and Sex Subjects	13 years 6 months - 14 years 11 months (N 46)		15 years 0 months - 17 years 11 months (N 142)		18 years 0 months - 19 years 11 months (N 12)		Total (N 200)	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Black Male	0	0	12	8.4	2	16.6	14	7.0
Black Female	2	4.3	0	0	0	0	2	1.0
White Male	4	8.7	18	12.7	0	0	22	11.0
White Female	2	4.3	1	.7	0	0	3	1.5
Other Male	0	0	1	.7	0	0	1	.5
Other Female	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<u>Combined Race</u>								
All Black	2	4.3	12	8.4	2	16.6	16	8.0
All White	6	13.0	19	13.3	0	0	25	12.5
All Others	0	0	1	.7	0	0	1	.5

TABLE 10

Offenses Committed by Subjects in This Investigation
Reported by Age Range, Race, Sex, and Nature of Offense

Race and Sex Subjects	13 years 6 months - 14 years 11 months (N 46)						15 years 0 months - 17 years 11 months (N 142)						18 years 0 months - 19 years 11 months (N 12)						Total (N 200)					
	Non- Adult		Crimes Against Persons		Crimes Against Property		Non- Adult		Crimes Against Persons		Crimes Against Property		Non- Adult		Crimes Against Persons		Crimes Against Property		Non- Adult		Crimes Against Persons		Crimes Against Property	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Black Male	2	4.3	0	0	1	2.1	1	.7	21	14.8	14	9.8	0	0	2	16.6	4	33.3	3	1.5	23	11.5	19	9.0
Black Female	2	4.3	1	2.1	0	0	0	0	1	.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1.0	2	1.0	0	0
White Male	11	23.9	3	6.5	8	17.4	28	19.7	28	19.7	35	24.6	0	0	2	16.6	3	25.0	39	19.5	33	16.5	46	23.0
White Female	19	41.3	1	2.1	4	8.7	13	9.2	2	1.4	3	2.1	0	0	2	16.6	3	25.0	32	16.0	5	2.5	7	3.5
Other Male	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1.4	2	1.4	2	1.4	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1.0	2	1.0	2	1.0
Other Female	2	4.3	0	0	0	0	1	.7	0	0	2	1.4	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1.5	0	0	2	1.0
Combined Race																								
All Black	4	8.7	1	2.1	1	2.1	1	.7	22	15.5	14	9.9	0	0	2	16.6	4	33.3	5	2.5	25	11.5	19	9.5
All White	30	65.2	4	8.7	12	26.1	41	28.9	30	21.1	38	26.8	0	0	4	33.3	6	50.0	71	35.5	38	19.0	53	26.5
All Others	2	4.3	0	0	0	0	3	2.1	2	1.4	4	2.8	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	2.5	2	1.0	4	2.0

All offenses were categorized appropriately. Multiple offenses committed by one person but falling within a particular category were recorded only one time.

TABLE 11

Previous Offenses Committed by Subjects in This Investigation Reported by Age Range, Race, Sex, and Nature of Offense* **

Race and Sex of Subjects	13 years 6 months - 14 years 11 months (N=46)					
	Nonadult		Crimes Against Persons		Crimes Against Property	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Black						
Male	0	0	0	0	0	0
Female	0	0	0	0	1	2.1
White						
Male	1	2.1	2	4.4	8	17.4
Female	5	10.9	1	2.1	3	6.5
Others						
Male	0	0	0	0	0	0
Female	0	0	0	0	0	0
Combined Races						
All Black	0	0	0	0	1	2.1
All White	6	13.0	3	6.5	11	23.9
All Others	0	0	0	0	0	0
15 years 0 months - 17 years 11 months (N=142)						
Black						
Male	2	1.4	12	8.4	15	10.6
Female	0	0	0	0	0	0
White						
Male	22	15.5	13	9.2	31	21.7
Female	4	2.8	0	0	2	1.4
Others						
Male	1	.7	0	0	0	0
Female	1	.7	0	0	1	.7
Combined Races						
All Black	2	1.4	12	8.5	15	10.6
All White	26	18.3	13	9.2	33	23.2
All Others	2	1.4	0	0	1	.7
18 years 0 months - 19 years 11 months (N=12)						
Black						
Male	1	8.3	3	25.0	3	25.0
Female	0	0	0	0	0	0
White						
Male	1	8.3	1	8.3	1	8.3
Female	0	0	0	0	0	0
Others						
Male	0	0	0	0	0	0
Female	0	0	0	0	0	0
Combined Races						
All Black	1	8.3	3	25.0	3	25.0
All White	1	8.3	1	8.3	1	8.3
All Others	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total N 200						
Black						
Male	3	1.5	15	7.5	18	9.0
Female	0	0	0	0	1	.5
White						
Male	24	12.0	16	8.0	40	20.0
Female	9	4.5	3	1.5	5	2.5
Others						
Male	1	.5	0	0	0	0
Female	1	.5	0	0	1	.5
Combined Races						
All Black	3	1.5	15	7.5	19	9.5
All White	33	16.5	19	9.5	45	22.5
All Others	2	1.0	0	0	1	.5

*All offenses were categorized appropriately. Multiple offenses occurring within a single category by the same subjects were recorded only one time.

**The information provided was self-report data, hence, the information is subject to the problems incurred with self-report data.

Scholastic Achievement

A comparison of school achievement including Reading, Arithmetic, and Intelligence Quotient scores for all subjects reported by age range, race, and sex is presented in Table 12. In the age category 13-6 to 14-11, the white subjects had a higher mean IQ (87.2) than black subjects (58.4), the white subjects had a lower mean chronological age (14.2) than the black subjects (14.6), and the white subjects had higher mean Reading and Arithmetic achievement scores (6.7 & 5.2) than the black subjects (2.7 & 2.9). In the 15-0 to 17-11 age category, white subjects achieved a higher mean IQ (95.7) than the black subjects (81.9), the white subjects had a lower mean chronological age (16.4) than the black subjects (16.8), and the white subjects had higher mean Reading and Arithmetic achievement scores (8.5 & 5.7) than the black subjects (4.4 & 4.0). The pattern continues through the 18-0 to 19-11 age category. White subjects achieved a higher mean IQ (97.5) than the black subjects (80.7), mean chronological ages for black and white subjects were the same (18.1), but the mean Reading and Arithmetic achievement scores were higher for white subjects (8.1 & 5.8) than for black subjects (4.6 & 5.2).

Special Learning Problems

Special learning problems of all subjects reported by age range, race, and sex are compared in Table 13. White females in the 13-6 to 14-11 age category had more learning problems (23.9%) than any other group. In the age category 15-0 to 17-11, black males and white males had identical numbers of learning problems reported. Proportionately, however, black males had more learning problems (52.9%) than white males (21.7%) in the 15-0 to 17-11 age category. For the age category 18-0 to 19-11, black males was the only group reported as having learning problems.

Discrepancies Between Mean Reading and Mean Arithmetic Scores

A comparison of discrepancies between the mean Reading and mean Arithmetic achievement scores and the grade expectancy level for all subjects reported by age range, race, and sex is presented in Table 14. In the age category 13-6 to 14-11, black males had the greatest discrepancy in both Reading and Arithmetic scores. They achieved at a rate of -6.3 to -6.4 years below the mean grade level expectancy respectively. All groups, excluding white males and females, achieved at

TABLE 12

Scholastic Achievement Including Reading, Arithmetic, and Intelligence Quotient (IQ) Scores for All Subjects Reported by Race, Sex, and Age Range

Race and Sex of Subjects	13 years 6 months - 14 years 11 months (N 46)		% of Subjects (N 200)	X		X*	
	Number of Subjects N	% (N46)		IQ	CA	Read. (G.E.)	Arith. (G.E.)
Black Male	3	6.5	1.5	53.7	14.6	2.7	2.6
Black Female	2	4.3	1.0	65.5	14.5	2.7	3.4
White Male	18	39.1	9.0	91.6	14.2	7.1	5.6
White Female	21	45.6	10.5	83.3	14.3	6.4	4.8
Other Male	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Other Female	2	4.3	1.0	76.0	13.7	4.9	6.2
<u>Combined Race</u>							
All Black	5	10.9	2.5	58.4	14.6	2.7	2.9
All White	39	84.8	19.5	87.2	14.2	6.7	5.2
All Others	2	4.3	1.0	76.0	13.7	4.9	6.2
15 years 0 months - 17 years 11 months (N 142)							
Black Male	34	23.9	17.0	81.4	16.8	4.4	3.9
Black Female	1	.7	.5	96.0	17.3	5.6	7.4
White Male	83	58.5	41.5	96.2	16.4	8.4	5.7
White Female	16	11.3	8.0	93.4	16.2	8.9	5.4
Other Male	5	3.5	2.5	90.6	16.7	7.9	4.6
Other Female	3	2.1	1.5	90.7	16.4	6.5	4.8
<u>Combined Race</u>							
All Black	35	24.7	17.5	81.9	16.8	4.4	4.0
All White	99	69.7	49.5	95.7	16.4	8.5	5.7
All Others	8	5.6	4.0	90.6	16.7	7.6	4.6
18 years 0 months - 19 years 11 months (N 12)							
Black Male	6	50.0	3.0	80.7	18.1	4.6	5.2
Black Female	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
White Male	5	41.7	2.5	97.2	18.1	8.1	5.8
White Female	1	8.3	.5	99.0	18.0	0	0
Other Male	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Other Female	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<u>Combined Race</u>							
All Black	6	50.0	3.0	80.7	18.1	4.6	5.2
All White	6	50.0	3.0	97.5	18.1	8.1	5.8
All Others	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

*Mean Reading and Arithmetic Scores are reported in grade equivalency and are based on only those subjects for which Reading and Arithmetic scores were available. There were some subjects for whom the data were not available.

TABLE 13

Special Learning Problems of All Subjects
Reported by Race, Sex, and Age Range

Race and Sex of Subjects	13 years 6 months - 14 years 11 months (N 46)									
	Subjects		$\bar{X}$ IQ	None		L.D. ¹		M.R. ²		
	N	%		N	%	N	%	N	%	
Black Male	3	6.5	53.7	1	2.2	0	0	2	4.3	
Black Female	2	4.3	65.5	0	0	0	0	2	4.3	
White Male	18	39.1	91.6	7	15.2	4	8.7	7	15.2	
White Female	21	45.6	83.3	10	21.8	1	2.2	10	21.8	
Other Male	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Other Female	2	4.3	76.0	1	2.2	0	0	1	2.2	
<u>Combined Race</u>										
All Black	5	10.9	58.4	1	2.2	0	0	4	8.7	
All White	39	84.8	87.2	17	37.0	5	10.9	17	37.0	
All Others	2	4.3	76.0	1	2.2	0	0	1	2.2	
<u>15 years 0 months - 17 years 11 months (N 142)</u>										
Black Male	34	23.9	81.4	16	11.3	1	.7	17	12.0	
Black Female	1	.7	96.0	1	.7	0	0	0	0	
White Male	83	58.5	96.2	65	45.8	12	8.4	6	4.2	
White Female	16	11.3	93.4	14	9.8	0	0	2	1.4	
Other Male	5	3.5	90.6	5	3.5	0	0	0	0	
Other Female	3	2.1	90.7	3	2.1	0	0	0	0	
<u>Combined Race</u>										
All Black	35	24.7	81.9	17	12.0	1	.7	17	12.0	
All White	99	69.7	95.7	79	55.6	12	8.4	8	5.6	
All Others	8	5.6	90.6	8	5.6	0	0	0	0	
<u>18 years 0 months - 19 years 11 months (N 12)</u>										
Black Male	6	50.0	80.7	4	33.3	0	0	2	16.6	
Black Female	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
White Male	5	41.7	97.2	5	41.7	0	0	0	0	
White Female	1	8.3	99.0	1	8.3	0	0	0	0	
Other Male	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Other Female	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
<u>Combined Race</u>										
All Black	6	50.0	80.7	4	33.3	0	0	2	16.6	
All White	6	50.0	97.5	6	50.0	0	0	0	0	
All Others	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	

1. L.D. refers to Learning Disabilities as a separate diagnostic category.

2. M.R. refers to Mental Retardation as a separate diagnostic category.

TABLE 14

Discrepancy Between the Mean Reading and Mean
Arithmetic Scores and the Grade Expectancy Level
for All Subjects Reported by Race, Sex, and Age Range

Race and Sex of Subjects	13 years 6 months - 14 years 11 months (N 46)			
	$\bar{X}$ CA	$\bar{X}$ GE ¹	$\bar{X}$ Reading Discre- ² pancy in Years	$\bar{X}$ Arithmetic Discre- ² pancy in Years
Black Male	14.6	9	-6.3	-6.4
Black Female	14.5	8	-5.3	-4.6
White Male	14.2	8	-0.9	-2.4
White Female	14.3	8	-1.6	-3.2
Other Male	0	0	0	0
Other Female	13.7	8	-3.2	-1.9
<u>Combined Races</u>				
All Black	14.6	9	-6.3	-6.1
All White	14.2	8	-1.3	-2.9
All Others	13.7	8	-3.2	-1.9
15 years 0 months - 17 years 11 months (N 142)				
Black Male	16.8	11	-6.6	-7.1
Black Female	17.3	11	-5.4	-3.6
White Male	16.4	10	-1.6	-4.3
White Female	16.2	10	-1.1	-4.6
Other Male	16.7	11	-3.2	-6.4
Other Female	16.4	10	-3.5	-5.2
<u>Combined Races</u>				
All Black	16.8	11	-6.6	-7.0
All White	16.4	10	-1.6	-4.3
All Others	16.7	11	-3.4	-6.4
18 years 0 months - 19 years 11 months (N 12)				
Black Male	18.1	12	-7.4	-6.8
Black Female	0	0	0	0
White Male	18.1	12	-3.9	-6.2
White Female	18.0	12	0	0
Other Male	0	0	0	0
Other Female	0	0	0	0
<u>Combined Races</u>				
All Black	18.1	12	-7.4	-6.8
All White	18.1	12	-3.9	-6.2
All Others	0	0	0	0

1. Mean Grade Expectancy score based on the assumption that children in grade 1 have a 6.5 CA and that they progress at a rate of one grade level per year.
2. Mean Reading Discrepancy scores and mean Arithmetic Discrepancy Scores represent the difference between the obtained mean WRAT grade equivalency scores (Table 12) and the mean grade expectancy score.

a rate of -3.2 or more years below mean grade level expectancy in Reading. In the age category 15-0 to 17-11, black males had the greatest discrepancy in Reading and Arithmetic scores. They achieved at a rate of -6.6 to -7.1 years below mean grade level expectancy, respectively. The only groups in the 15-0 to 17-11 age category achieving at a rate greater than -3.2 years below mean grade level expectancy in Reading were the white males and females. The highest mean grade level achievement attained in the 15-0 to 17-11 age category was -1.1 years below mean grade level expectancy in Reading. This was accomplished by white females. Black males and white males were the only groups with reported incidence figures in the 18-0 to 19-11 age category. Black males had the greatest discrepancy in both Reading and Arithmetic scores. They achieved at a rate of -7.4 and -6.8 years below mean grade level expectancy, respectively. In contrast, white males achieved at a somewhat higher rate, achieving respective mean grade level expectancy scores of -3.9 and -6.2 in Reading and Arithmetic.

Discrepancies Between the Mean Expected Grade Attainment and the Mean Actual Grade Attainment

A comparison of discrepancies between the mean expected grade attainment and the mean actual grade attainment reported by age range, race, and sex is provided in Table 15. In the 13-6 to 14-11 age category, only black males and other females had not achieved their mean grade level expectancy. In the 15-0 to 17-11 age category, only black males and other males did not achieve their mean grade level expectancy. In the 18-0 to 19-11 age category, the mean actual grade attained was commensurate with the mean grade level expectancy for those groups with subjects in this age category.

Statistical Computations

Several statistical computations were made utilizing various data from the investigation. They are:

1. A chi square was computed using race of subjects and grade level in school as the comparative variables. The chi square was significant at the .01 level.

TABLE 15

Discrepancy Between the Mean Expected Grade Attainment and the Mean Actual Grade Attainment Reported by Race, Sex and Age Range

Race and Sex of Subjects	13 years 6 months - 14 years 11 months				
	No.	$\bar{X}_{CA}$	$\bar{X}_{GE}^1$	X Actual Grade Attained	$\bar{X}$ Discrepancy
Black Male	3	14.6	9	8.7	-.33
Black Female	2	14.5	8	9.0	+1.0
White Male	16	14.2	8	8.4	+.40
White Female	20	14.3	8	8.5	+.50
Other Male	0	0	0	0	0
Other Female	2	13.7	8	7.0	-1.0
<u>Combined Races</u>					
All Black	5	14.6	9	8.8	-.20
All White	36	14.2	8	8.5	-.50
All Others	2	13.7	8	7.0	+1.0
15 years 0 months - 17 years 11 months					
Black Male	22	16.8	11	10.9	-.10
Black Female	1	17.3	11	12.0	+1.0
White Male	55	16.2	10	10.1	+.10
White Female	11	16.2	10	10.1	+.10
Other Male	4	16.8	11	9.8	-1.2
Other Female	0	0	0	0	0
<u>Combined Races</u>					
All Black	23	16.8	11	10.9	-.10
All White	66	16.2	10	10.1	+.10
All Others	4	16.8	11	9.8	-1.20
18 years 0 months - 19 years 11 months					
Black Male	3	18.1	12	12.0	None
Black Female	0	0	0	0	0
White Male	1	18.1	12	12.0	None
White Female	0	0	12	0	0
Other Male	0	0	0	0	0
Other Female	0	0	0	0	0
<u>Combined Races</u>					
All Black	3	18.1	12	12.0	None
All White	1	18.1	12	12.0	None
All Others	0	0	0	0	0

1. Mean Grade Expectancy score based on the assumption that children in grade one have a 6.5 CA and that they progress as a rate of one grade level per year.

2. Chronological age was compared with (a) race, (b) sex, (c) drug intake, (d) grade level attained in school, (e) nonadult offenses, (f) crime against person offenses, and (g) crime against property offenses. A point biserial was computed and was found significant at the .01 level.
3. A one way analysis of variance was computed on arithmetic scores of the subjects and crime against person offenses committed by the subjects. It was significant at the .01 level.
4. The point biserial was used to compare intelligence quotient and (a) race of subjects, (b) subjects from broken homes, (c) drug intake subjects, and (d) subjects with learning problems. Each was significant at the .01 level. The point biserial was also used to compare reading scores with (a) race of subjects and (b) subjects with learning problems; and arithmetic scores with (a) crime against person offenses and (b) subjects with learning problems. All were significant at the .01 level.

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

Summary

The purpose of this investigation was to develop a descriptive profile of the adjudicated adolescent. The investigator sought to determine if predictive factors were discernable from an ex post facto analysis of data.

Six instruments were utilized in obtaining the data. All instruments were administered by a consulting psychologist to a juvenile bureau. The instruments were the (a) Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children; (b) Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children-Revised; (c) Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale; (d) Wide Range Achievement Test; (e) Bender Visual Motor Gestalt Test; and (f) Rorschach Test.

Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data. Demographic data were analyzed first. Significant relationships were found between:

1. Subjects from broken homes and subjects who had experienced some type of drug intake immediately preceding the offense(s) for which the subjects were apprehended and adjudicated.
2. Race of subjects and grade level attained.
3. Chronological age of subjects and (a) race of subjects, (b) sex of subjects, (c) subjects who experienced some type of drug intake, (d) grade level attained in school, (e) subjects who committed nonadult offenses, (f) subjects who committed crime against person offenses, and (g) subjects who committed crime against property offenses.
4. Arithmetic scores of subjects and subjects who committed crime against person offenses.
5. Arithmetic scores of subjects and (a) subjects adjudicated for crime against person offenses and (b) subjects with learning problems.
6. Reading scores of subjects and (a) race of subjects and (b) subjects with learning problems.

There were no statistically significant relationships determined when delinquent behavior data were compared with other variables. However, significant relationships were established when demographic and scholastic variables were compared with delinquent behavior data.

When scholastic data was analyzed, significant relationships were found between:

1. Subjects with learning problems and subjects who experienced some type of drug intake.
2. Intelligence quotient of subjects and (a) race of subjects, (b) subjects from broken homes, (c) subjects who experienced some type of drug intake, and (d) subjects with learning problems.

Discussion

Tabular data presented previously are not all statistically significant. However, certain elements of the information are suggestive of possible trends and deserve further consideration. In a section which follows, the investigator will relate significant tabular data to the literature and present a composite profile of the adjudicated adolescent sociopath based on information obtained from the case files of the subjects utilized in this investigation. The composite sociopathic profile should be viewed as a compilation of information and not as a statement unique to a particular group or class of individuals.

The findings of the present investigation involving home status of delinquent subjects is reflective of the increasing number of delinquents who come from broken homes. The percentage of subjects living at home with both natural parents is higher (30.5%) than the 22.1% reported by Messinger (1977), but much lower than the 50% reported by Hardy & Cull (1974).

Ullmann & Krasner (1975) relate that being male and 16 to 17 years of age seems most predictive of obtaining delinquent status. The information in Table 4 indicates that males in the 15-0 to 17-11 age category were adjudicated more than any other group utilized in this investigation.

The results of the present investigation regarding school status indicate that more subjects were enrolled in school at the time of adjudication (N 138) than were subjects classified as dropouts (N 62) at the time of the present investigation. The difference in grade level attainment for white and black males in this investigation suggest that black males who remain in school achieve a mean grade level higher than their white male counterparts. However, the difference in chronological age for white and black males who drop out of school suggest that white male dropouts are adjudicated at an earlier age than black male dropouts. This finding supports Mauser (1974) who found delinquents to be younger and brighter than the delinquents of previous years.

For all race and age categories, black subjects had the highest mean chronological age (16.7) and white subjects had the lowest chronological age (15.7) at the time of the present adjudication. The data of this investigation supports that of Wolfgang, Figlio, & Sellin (1972) regarding the age at which most delinquencies start.

The information provided in Table 8 does not support the notion of Gold & Reimer (1972) that increased drug use would correlate with increased crime. In the present investigation, 14.0% of the sample population reported some type of drug intake just prior to committing the offense(s) for which apprehension and adjudication followed.

If the reader observes the totals of Table 10 in terms of quantity alone, the reader will see that white males, when compared with other groups, are adjudicated more frequently in each offense category. Upon closer inspection, it becomes readily apparent that black males proportionately commit more serious offenses (crime against persons) than any other group.

For the 46 black subjects, there were 25 crimes against persons committed for which black subjects had been adjudicated. Conversely, there were 38 crimes against persons reported for the white subjects. The respective percentages of offenses committed per person were 54% for black subjects and 26% for white subjects. This substantiates the findings of Ahlstrom & Havighurst (1971) and Wolfgang (1969) who found that blacks and males are more criminally aggressive than whites or females, based on the high rates of crimes against persons reported.

White subjects in this investigation were reported as having previously committed more criminal offenses than any other group. However, if the ratio of serious offenses between black and white subjects is observed, it becomes apparent that blacks were adjudicated for serious offenses at a much higher rate (32.6%) than white subjects (11.8%).

A comparison of totals for each age group gives additional clarity to the comparison between age and race achievement levels. In the 13-6 to 14-11 age category, white subjects were .4 mean years younger (14.2 - 14.6), had a grade level expectancy of one year lower (8 - 9), and were achieving at a 5.0 years higher mean rate in Reading (-1.3 to -6.3) and 3.2 years higher in Arithmetic (-2.9 to -6.1). In the 15-0 to 17-11 age category, white subjects were .4 mean years younger (16.4 - 16.8), had a grade level expectancy one year lower (10 - 11), and were achieving at a 5.0 years higher mean rate in Reading (-1.6 to -6.6) and 2.7 years higher in Arithmetic (-4.3 to -7.0). In the 18-0 to 19-11 age category, the mean

chronological age and the grade expectancy were the same. However, white subjects were achieving at a 3.5 years higher mean rate in Reading (-3.9 to -7.4) and .6 years higher in Arithmetic (-6.2 to -6.8).

For the entire sample population utilized in this investigation, it was found that mentally retarded subjects were more abundant (N 49) than those subjects having learning disabilities (N 18). Collectively, there were 67 subjects (33.5% of the sample population) who exhibited special learning problems. White subjects in the 13-6 to 14-11 and 15-0 to 17-11 age categories and black subjects in the 15-0 to 17-11 age category had the highest incidence of learning problems.

Combined race totals in the 13-6 to 14-11 age category indicate a discrepancy between black and white subjects for the mean actual grade attained and the mean grade level expectancy (-.20 to -.50). In the 15-0 to 17-11 age category, black subjects and other subjects were found not to be at the mean grade level expectancy (-.10 and -1.20). There were no discrepancies in the 18-0 to 19-11 age category, probably as a result of the limited n.

Composite Sociopathic Profile

The case studies of 200 adjudicated adolescents have been analyzed in this investigation. The investigator has compiled a composite sociopathic profile based on the data from the case studies analyzed in this investigation. Although the information presented is not uniquely true, in that other groups may exhibit similar characteristics, the information presented will provide the reader with additional insight regarding the problem presented to society by adolescent delinquents.

The sociopathic adolescent may be said to be chronically antisocial and maintains no real loyalties to any person, group, or code. The sociopath seems to find trouble wherever he goes and profits neither from experience or punishment. Further, the sociopath has no real sense of responsibility, has poor judgment, and constantly rationalizes behavior so that it appears warranted, reasonable, and justified.

The present investigation represents an initial inquiry by these researchers into the area of adolescent delinquent behavior. The study has highlighted numerous areas that need further investigation.

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